

Organizational Culture and Person Organization Fit as Antecedents of Psychological Ownership

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Abstract

The importance of psychological ownership for organizations has started to attract researches on the subject for the last decade, but all the antecedents of it have not been clearly defined yet. This study investigates the effect of the organizational culture on psychological ownership and the mediating role of person-organization fit. The study adopted a convenient sampling method and was conducted in the hospitality sector with a total of 316 participants from various hotels located in Antalya, Turkey. Analyses were carried out with the PLS-SEM technique, and the results show that clan-type and adhocracy-type cultures affect the affective psychological ownership, hierarchy-type culture affects job-based psychological ownership, while market-type culture has no effect on either affective or job-based psychological ownership. The results also show that the person-organization fit only has a mediation effect in the effects of clan-type and adhocracy-type cultures on affective and job-based psychological ownership.

Keywords: Organizational Culture, Psychological Ownership, Person-Organization Fit

1. Introduction

The increase in global competition and technology resulted in changes in many areas and the business world; knowledge and the power of expertise came to the fore instead of muscle power. This situation placed people who develop and use technology and machines at the center of success rather than machines and technology themselves. Therefore, human resources departments became a more important concept than before in terms of success. A wide variety of policies and practices were adopted in order to use and activate human resources effectively and efficiently to achieve organizational goals.

One of the endeavors to activate this human factor is to transform the firms into employee-owned companies by allocating shares to their employees. In this process, which was popular especially during the 1970s, employees were encouraged to purchase the company shares to have employees develop a sense of ownership of the company and try to contribute their best to attain the organizational goals. However, this practice did not really produce the desired outcome. According to Pierce and Furo (1990:42), the reason for this failure was that the legal partnership of the employee does not have direct socio-psychological and behavioral effects. Only a partnership designed with fairness, information, and influence components

will help improve psychological ownership and employee commitment and integration to the business. In other words, only psychological ownership provides the employee's commitment to and integration with the company.

Therefore, psychological ownership is a very significant matter for the organization because an employee who has a sense of ownership for the organization shows many positive behaviors vital for the organization, including organizational citizenship behavior, which increase not only the person's task performance but also the performance, conformity of the entire organization and organizational resilience.

In many studies, the effects of leadership, participation in decision-making, being a shareholder, or profit-sharing on psychological ownership are being examined. However, to our best knowledge, the effect of organizational culture and person-organization fit on psychological ownership has not been studied. This study is designed to assess the effects of organizational culture on psychological ownership, which is of high importance in terms of organizations and to determine the possible mediating role of person-organization fit in this effect.

2. Significance Of The Study

Psychological ownership

Ownership is the state of having the right of possessing something. Ownership is the perception of an object as mine or ours, as an extension of one's sense of self (Pierce, O'Driscoll, and Coghlan, 2004). *Psychological ownership* is the feeling of ownership that people develop for a variety of objects, whether material or immaterial (Pierce, Kostova, and Dirks, 2003) and first expressed in the model developed by Pierce, Rubinfeld, and Morgan (1991) in terms of property possession. In this model, psychological ownership was described as a condition that being developed from formal ownership. Following this study, Pierce, Kostova, and Dirks (2001) developed a theory describing psychological ownership as a distinct state from legal possession of something; it is "...*feeling of possessiveness and of being psychologically tied to...*" something. Shukla and Singh (2015) describe psychological ownership as "*the sense of ownership metamorphosed into psychological ownership that referred to a mental state where one develops strong sense of possessiveness towards an object in absence of any legal entitlement over it.*"

There is a difference between legal and psychological ownership: "...*legal ownership is recognized foremost by society, and hence the rights that come with ownership are specified and protected by the legal system. In contrast, psychological ownership is recognized foremost by the individual who holds this feeling. Consequently, it is the individual who manifests the felt rights associated with psychological ownership*" (Pierce, Kostova, and Dirks, 2003:87). In short, psychological ownership expresses the state of psychological attachment to objects (Demirkaya and Kandemir, 2014:9).

Psychological ownership has two dimensions; affective and job-based ownership (Aslan and Ateşoğlu, 2020). Affective ownership is the relationship between one's sense of self and the organization, while job-based ownership is the feeling of possession derived from personal competence or control. (Aslan ve Ateşoğlu, 2020).

Person-organization fit

Person-organization fit is the state of compatibility formed when the requirements of the self and the organization are met, or both share similar basic characteristics. (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005:285). Person-organization fit is the congruence and the resemblance of the goals, values, judgments, and characters of the person and the organization (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, Johnson, 2005; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). People prefer to take part in organizations where they can use and develop their knowledge, skills, and competencies in the best way and have values that match their values. In other words, people prefer the organizations where the person-organization fit is at the highest level. Studies have been conducted to determine the different aspects of person-organization fit; such as the extent that it meets the needs of the employees (Cable and Judge, 1996), the degree of individual and the organizational values match (Bowen, 1982:37), or if person-organization fit emerges only for specific conditions, tasks or adaptation to a specific type of an organization (Chatman, 1991).

Researches generally focus on the relationship of person-organization fit with organizational citizenship, job satisfaction, job performance, and organizational attachment. Furthermore, these studies have shown that the person-organization fit is an important concept for organizational behavior and human resources management as well as for the psychological health of the employees (Güteryüz and Aydın, 2020). Establishing a person-organization fit is essential for the employee to be productive and integrate with the organization.

Hence, the person-organization fit should have a significant and positive effect on both dimensions of psychological ownership. The hypotheses reflecting these effects are as follow:

H1: Person-organization fit has a significant and positive effect on psychological ownership

H1a: Person-organization fit has a significant and positive effect on affective psychological ownership.

H1b: Person-organization fit has a significant and positive effect on job-based psychological ownership.

Organizational Culture

Culture is one of the essential elements of the organizations' social-environmental factors; therefore, it affects the survival and the development of the organizations to a great extent. Organizational culture is the concept that covers the relationships and communication networks established by the groups and individuals within the organization, shared values, beliefs, ideas, expectations, practices that guide the members' actions and organization (Seymen ve Bolat 2002; Dinçer, 1992). In short, the organizational culture defines the organization's identity.

Several organizational models have been developed (Cheung, Wong, and Wu, 2011). Some of those models are Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov's (2010) six-dimensional organizational culture model, Ouchi's (1989) Theory Z model, Peters and Waterman's (1982) Eight Attributes of Excellence, Handy's (1985) power, role, task, and person model, Cameron and Quinn's (2006/1999) clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market model with two cultural variables: stability and control versus flexibility and direction, and internal focus versus external focus.

As shown in Figure 1, these four types of organizational culture demonstrate some differences in terms of focus, leader type, effectiveness criteria, management style, value drivers, organizational glue, and success criteria (Cameron and Quinn, 2006/1999).

The differences between these four types of organizational culture are (Quinn ve Cameron, 2006/1999):

- i. **Clan-Type Culture** focuses on flexibility, organization’s internal dynamics, and engagement; features common sense and emphasizes team building, engagement, collaboration, and development of its members.
- ii. **Adhocracy-Type Culture** is innovator, visionary, agile, and entrepreneurial that emphasizes flexibility and common sense while focusing on outward rather than internal dynamics of the organization.
- iii. **Hierarchy-Type Culture** emphasizes internal stability and control and therefore focuses on internal dynamics; and prioritizes organization, coordination, standardization, consistency, and predictability.
- iv. **Market-Type Culture** is outward-looking, competitive, success-oriented while emphasizing stability and control; and follows an aggressive marketing strategy to increase profitability and market share.

Quinn and Cameron (2006/1999) developed an Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument to evaluate the perception of the organization’s members under the topics of dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success to evaluate these four different organization types.

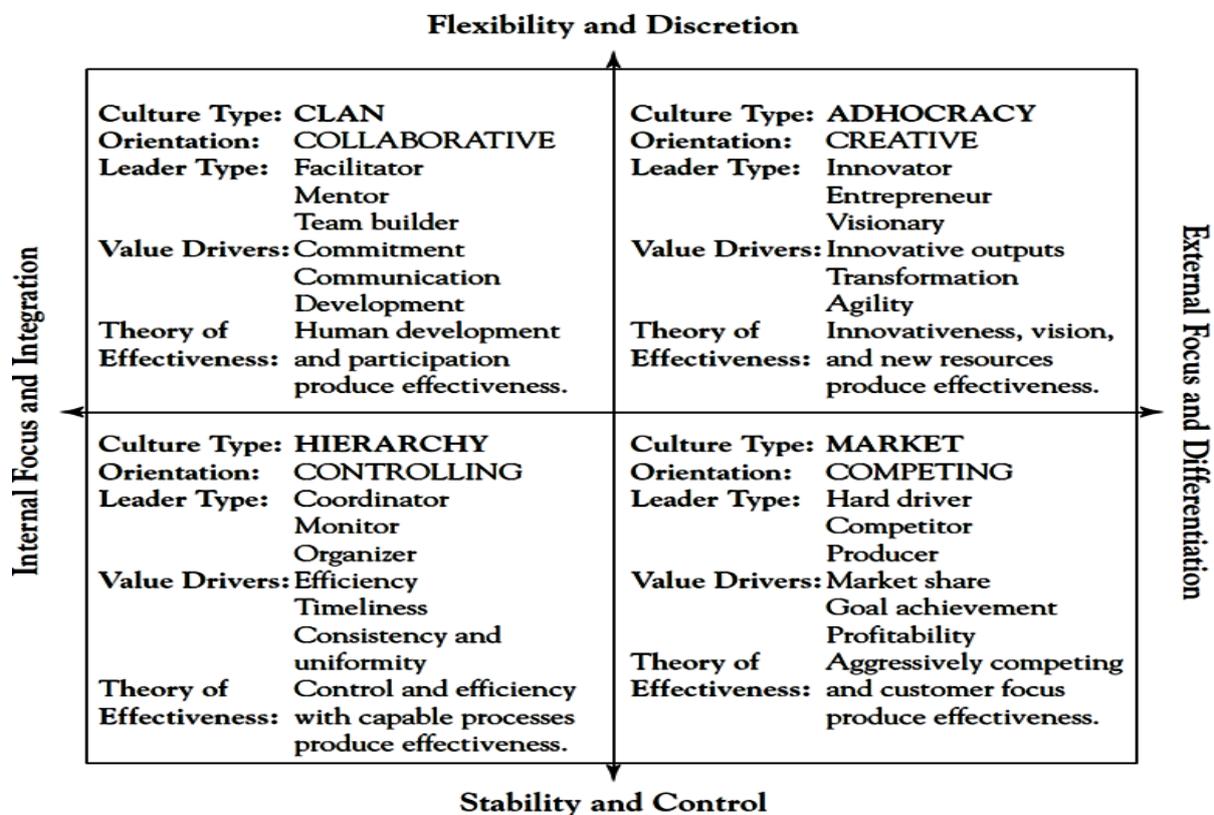


Figure 1. Organizational Culture
 Source: Quinn and Cameron, 2006/1999:46

Since organizational culture functions to match the organizational goals with that of employees, it must also have an effect on psychological ownership. In this context;

- i. Clan-type culture, featuring the individuals' engagement with each other and towards the organization, is expected to affect the affective dimension of psychological ownership.
- ii. Adhocracy-type culture, representing a flexible, adaptable, and informal organizational culture where there is no bureaucracy or procedures, is expected to affect, again, the affective dimension of psychological ownership.
- iii. Hierarchy-type culture, focusing on chain of command, coordination, procedure, and standardization, should be expected to impact the job-based dimension of psychological ownership. It should not affect the affective dimension since it ignores the feelings and expectations of the individuals.
- iv. Similarly, success-oriented Market-type culture, which aims to increase profitability and Market share, should be expected to affect the job-based dimension of psychological ownership rather than the affective dimension.

To summarize, *clan* and *adhocracy* type cultures should affect the *affective* dimension of psychological ownership, while *hierarchy* and *market* type cultures affect the *job-based* dimension. In other words, cultures that prioritize individuals should affect the affective dimension of psychological ownership, while cultures that prioritize jobs affect the job-based dimension of psychological ownership. The following hypotheses formulated to reflect these effects:

H2: Clan-type culture has a significant and positive effect on affective psychological ownership.

H3: Adhocracy-type culture has a significant and positive effect on affective psychological ownership.

H4: Hierarchy-type culture has a significant and positive effect on job-based psychological ownership.

H5: Market-type culture has a significant and positive effect on job-based psychological ownership.

These culture types should affect psychological ownership through person-organization fit. If the organizational culture matches the individual culture or expectations, i.e., the person-organization fit emerges, then the person should have a sense of ownership of the organization. Hence, the person-organization fit should play a mediating role in the effect of organizational culture on psychological ownership. Hypotheses that are reflecting this role as follows:

H6: Person-organization fit has a mediating role in clan-type organizational culture's effect on affective psychological ownership.

H7: Person-organization fit has a mediating role in adhocracy-type organizational culture's effect on affective psychological ownership.

H8: Person-organization fit has a mediating role in hierarchy-type organizational culture's effect on job-based psychological ownership.

H9: Person-organization fit has a mediating role in market-type organizational culture's effect on job-based psychological ownership.

All these hypotheses are illustrated in the research model given in Figure 2.

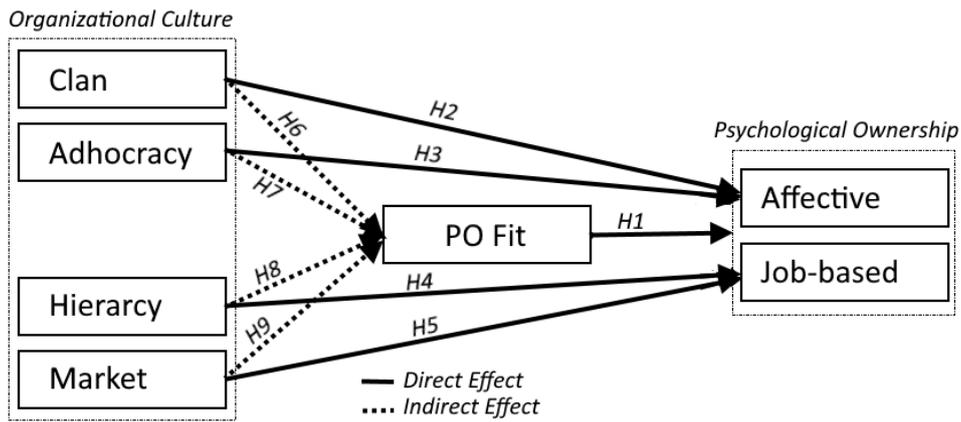


Figure 2. Research Model

3. Research Design

Measures

A total of three different scales were used in this study which aims to reveal the effect of organizational culture on psychological ownership and the possible mediating role of person-organization fit in this effect.

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is developed by Quinn and Cameron (2006/1999). The OCAI consists of 6 items: *Dominant Characteristics*, *Organizational Leadership*, *Management of Employees*, *Organization Glue*, *Strategic Emphases*, and *Criteria of Success*, with four alternatives under each item. Participants were asked to divide the total of 100 points among these four alternatives by giving a higher number of points to the most similar alternative to their organization. Afterward, the points of the first item of each group were written under clan-type culture, of the second item under adhocracy-type culture, of the third item under hierarchy-type culture, and of the fourth item under market-type culture; and all these points were added up, and their arithmetic average was calculated (Quinn and Cameron, 2005/1999:29-30). The arithmetic averages were accepted as indicators of the organizational culture.

The person-organization fit scale is developed by Netemeyer et al. (1997), consists of 4 items and one dimension. The psychological ownership scale is developed by Shukla and Singh (2005) and was adapted to Turkish by Aslan and Ateşoğlu (2020). The scale consists of 10 items and has two dimensions: affective and job-based ownership.

Sampling

The research was carried out in the hotels located in Antalya, Turkey. The convenience sampling method was adopted for the selection of hotels and participants. Hotel managers were contacted by phone first, and then the questionnaires were sent in electronic forms to those who accepted to participate. The management of participating hotels conducted the distribution of the questionnaires to participants.

The participation was voluntary, and no names were written on the questionnaire forms. The analyses were carried out with 316 returned questionnaires. The profile of participants is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Profile of Respondents

		f	%			f	%
Gender	Male	121	38,3	Tenure	Under 3 Years	109	34,5
	Female	195	61,7		3-9 Years	108	34,2
Age	Under 25	34	10,8	10-14 Years	61	19,3	
	Between 25-29	55	17,4	15 Years And Over	38	12,0	
	Between 30-34	64	20,3	Position	Blue/White Collar	210	66,5
	Between 35-39	102	32,3		Management Position	106	33,5
	Between 45-49	27	8,5		Below 10 Employees	49	15,5
50 and Over	34	10,8	10-49 Employees	56	17,7		
Education Level	High School & Below	74	23,4	Organization Size*	50-149 Employees	47	14,9
	University	154	48,7		150-499 Employees	47	14,9
	Graduate School	88	27,8		500 And Over	117	37,0

* f: Frequency reflects the number of participants, not the number of organizations.

4. Findings

SmartPLS 3.2.9 statistical software package (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015) was used to test the research model by conducting partial least squares (PLS) analysis. Internal consistency and reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the scales were evaluated as validity and reliability tests.

For internal consistency and reliability, Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability (CR) coefficients were examined. For the convergence validity, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) expected to be equal to or greater than 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al.,

2006; Hair et al., 2014); Cronbach Alpha is expected to be equal to or greater than 0.60 (Lyberg et al., 1997) and CR value is expected to be equal to or greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2019). Factor loadings are expected to be equal to or greater than 0.708, and items with a factor loading below 0.40 will be removed from the model, and those between 0.40 and 0.70 should be excluded as well if AVE or CR values are below the threshold value (Hair et al., 2014).

Cronbach's Alpha, AVE, and CR values are presented in Table 2

Table 2. Cronbach's Alpha, AVE, and CR Values

Variable	Item	Factor	Cronbach	CR	AVE
Organizational Culture	Adhocracy	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
	Clan	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
	Hierarchy	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
	Market	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Person Organization Fit	PERSON_ORG_FIT1	0,834	0,909	0,936	0,787
	PERSON_ORG_FIT2	0,894			
	PERSON_ORG_FIT3	0,917			
	PERSON_ORG_FIT4	0,900			
Psychological Ownership - Affective	P_OWNER1	0,832	0,898	0,926	0,716
	P_OWNER2	0,883			
	P_OWNER3	0,932			
	P_OWNER4	0,882			
	P_OWNER5	0,680			
Psychological Ownership - Job-Based	P_OWNER6	0,884	0,868	0,905	0,658
	P_OWNER7	0,864			
	P_OWNER8	0,829			
	P_OWNER9	0,660			
	P_OWNER10	0,799			

As per the results given in Table 2, all constructs have acceptable internal consistency; therefore, it is concluded that convergent validity is provided.

Discriminant validity is verified by using Fornell and Larcker (1981) criteria, which requires the square root of the AVE values of each construct to be higher than its measures. The structural model was assessed by evaluating the coefficient of determination (R^2), the blindfolding-based cross-validated redundancy measure Q^2 , and the statistical significance and relevance of the path coefficients as suggested by Hair et al. (2019).

As per R^2 and Q^2 values reported in Table 3, the estimation power coefficients (Q^2) calculated for endogenous variables are greater than zero, which suggests that the research model has predictive power for those endogenous variables (Hair et al., 2014), and R^2 values are higher than the recommended value of 0.10 (Falk and Miller, 1992; Hair et al., 2019), we concluded that the research model is acceptable.

Table 3. R² and Q² Values

	R Square	R Square Adjusted	Q Square
Affective	0,531	0,526	0,374
Job Based	0,326	0,319	0,204
PO Fit	0,530	0,524	0,411

Hypothesis Testing

The partial least square path analysis structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) technique is used to reveal both the main and the interaction effects of the research model with the bootstrap resampling method (Chin, 1998).

PLS-SEM analysis was done with SmartPLS 3.2.9 statistics software, and results are reported in Table 4.

Table 4. Path Analysis Results, Direct and Indirect Effects

Path	Hypothesis	Coefficient
PO Fit -> Affective	H1a	0,351***
PO Fit -> Job Based	H1b	0,181**
Clan -> Affective	H2	0,426***
Adhocracy -> Affective	H3	0,009
Hierarchy -> Job Based	H4	0,500***
Market -> Job-Based	H5	-0,074
Clan -> PO Fit -> Affective	H6	0,160**
Adhocracy -> PO Fit -> Affective	H7	0,098*
Hierarchy -> PO Fit -> Job-Based	H8	0,019
Market -> PO Fit -> Job-Based	H9	-0,018

As per the results given in Table 4, H1, H2, H4, H6, and H7 hypotheses are supported while H8 and H9 are not. Without the PO-Fit, the adhocracy-type culture has a significant direct effect ($\beta=0,648$; $p=0,000$) on the affective dimension of psychological ownership. Hence H3 hypothesis is supported. But the same could not be observed for the market-type culture on job-based psychological ownership, so H5 is not supported.

VAF (Variance Accounted For) values are calculated since the mediating effect of the person-organization fit is being determined in the effects of clan-type and adhocracy-type organizational cultures on the affective dimension of psychological ownership. The VAF value for Clan->PO Fit->Affective path is calculated as 0,273 and for Adhocracy->PO Fit->Affective as 0,916. It is concluded that the person-organization fit plays a partial mediator role in the effect of clan-type and full mediator role in the effect of adhocracy-type culture on the affective dimension of psychological ownership as per the criteria suggested by Hair et al. (2014:224).

The total effects of the organizational culture and person-organization fit on the dimensions of psychological ownership are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Total Effects

	Affective	Job Based	PO Fit
Adhocracy	0,109	0,051	0,281**
Clan	0,585***	0,083	0,456***
Hierarchy	0,036	0,517***	0,103

Market	-0,036	-0,092	-0,102
PO Fit	0,350***	0,182**	

As per results that are given in Table 5, clan-type organizational culture has the highest effect on affective psychological ownership and person-organization fit. Adhocracy-type organizational culture has a moderate effect on person-organization fit. Hierarchy-type organizational culture has a very high effect on job-based psychological ownership and a moderate effect on person-organization fit.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

Theoretical contribution

Although studies on psychological ownership have increased in recent years, it can be said that the interest in this concept is relatively low compared to other concepts. One of the reasons for this may be the uncertainty about the differentiation between psychological ownership and other concepts discussed in organizational behavior (Akarca, 2020).

As more differences between psychological ownership and other concepts of organizational behavior are being shown, then this concept will gain more interest from researchers. In order to achieve that, the antecedents and consequences of psychological ownership should be fully clarified.

This study tried to assess the organizational culture as one of the antecedents of psychological ownership and explain the mechanism of how it is being affected.

Some basic assumptions of the clan-type organizational culture are semi-autonomous work teams, employee development, a humane work environment, shared values, and the primary task of management is to empower employees and facilitate their participation, commitment, and loyalty. Teams get rewards, not individuals, and they are in charge of hiring or firing their own members, and they have control over their own work, and they are encouraged to give suggestions to improve both their own work and organizational performance through quality circles (Quinn and Cameron, 2006/1999). These assumptions and characteristics of the clan-style culture cause the organization to be perceived as an extended family, not a distinct entity that explains why it affects affective psychological ownership.

In the adhocracy-type organizational culture, employees serve in ad hoc task forces or committees, which are being disbanded as soon as the task is being completed (Quinn and Cameron, 2006/1999). There is no centralized power in adhocracy-type organizational culture, and the authority is passed to individuals or teams depending on the problem. Furthermore, everybody is being involved in all matters related to the organization. The main goal of adhocracy-type organizational culture is to develop employees to gain adaptability, flexibility, and creativity (Quinn and Cameron, 2006/1999) to cope with the environmental changes. This development process, along with no centralized authority, gives a semi-autonomy to a certain level which causes employees to reflect themselves on the tasks they are responsible for, and increases person-organization fit. Through the person-organization fit, affective psychological ownership emerges.

The hierarchy-type culture focuses on formal rules and policies. Organizations with dominant hierarchy-type culture jobs, authority, and responsibilities are clearly defined. The jobs are

emphasized, not the individuals, which causes employees to perceive the organization as only a place to work and earn livelihood and hence have job-based psychological ownership.

Organizations with dominant market-type culture are results-oriented, competitors, and winning the competition is the most important aspect. Therefore leaders are demanding and push the limits of the employees to get the most out of them, which causes work stress. We believe that this work stress and demanding characteristics of the culture prevents employees from having job-based psychological ownership.

Practical Implications

Replacing a competent employee with a new one has a very high cost. Sheridan (1992) calculated the company's loss about \$47.000 when a new employee replaces a three-year employee. Employee retention is a lot cheaper option than replacing a seasoned employee with a new one. Management needs to have employees develop a sense of ownership, especially psychologically experienced ownership (Pierce and Furo, 1990:40), to stay with the organization. This *psychologically experienced ownership* can be done by having the employees participate in decision-making processes, giving them a humane work environment, autonomy, and showing them that the management does care about their ideas and the jobs they do. In short, the human side of the organization should be emphasized. Only by these ways, the employees may perceive the psychological ownership of the organization.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has some limitations that need to be addressed. The data required for both independent and dependent variables were collected from a single source, i.e., same participants, which may cause common method variance. To rule out the possibility of this common method variance, Harman one-factor test (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986) was applied, and the result obtained (19,746%) was found below 50%. Hence, it is concluded that a single factor does not account for the majority of the variance.

For future researches, this study may be carried on in more than one sector and compare the results to assess if the effect of culture type on psychological ownership change from sector to sector. Furthermore, other variables, such as psychological empowerment, organizational culture, psychological capital, cooperation, organizational commitment, organizational spirituality, or personal values, may be added to the research model to determine the antecedents of psychological ownership further.

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